



1 **Current status of ocean observation, ensemble reanalysis and CMIP6**
2 **models in describing Antarctic Bottom Water**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), a key component of the global meridional
10 overturning circulation, forms in distinct regions around Antarctic coasts. The
11 properties of AABW from different sources can be distinguished by their temperature
12 and salinity properties. This study proposes a classification scheme to divide AABW
13 into three subtypes based on their properties and geographic regions: Weddell Sea and
14 Prydz Bay-originated AABW (WPBW), Ross Sea-originated AABW (RSBW), and
15 Adélie Land-originated AABW (ALBW). These three subtypes are clearly identified
16 in the World Ocean Atlas 2023 (WOA23) dataset. Taking WOA23 as a benchmark,
17 we then systematically evaluate the ability of other datasets, including ensemble
18 ocean reanalysis and CMIP6 models, to represent the spatial distribution and
19 thermohaline properties of these AABW subtypes. Results indicate that the ensemble
20 reanalysis performs well, albeit with an overestimation of ALBW. Nearly all CMIP6
21 models fail to capture these AABW subtypes, except after the correction of systematic
22 temperature and salinity biases. Notably, CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR is the only model
23 reproducing the three AABW subtypes without the correction, likely due to that the
24 implemented overflow parameterization fits tuned physical processes. Comparison
25 with its high resolution counterpart indicates that increased model resolution may not
26 necessarily improve AABW simulations. This refined classification framework, along



27 with the evaluation of various datasets, provides a foundation for more detailed
28 investigations into the AABW formation, variability, and trends under climate change.

29

30 **1 Introduction**

31 Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) is the coldest and densest water mass in the global
32 ocean. AABW is primarily sourced from coastal polynyas and extends across most of
33 the world's oceans, constituting approximately 30–40 % of the global ocean volume
34 (Johnson et al., 2008) . As the principal driver of the lower limb of the global
35 meridional overturning circulation (Orsi et al., 1999), the formation and transport of
36 AABW significantly influence vertical redistribution of heat (Purkey & Johnson,
37 2010) and ocean's capacity for long term carbon sequestration (Burke & Robinson,
38 2012; Marinov et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2023) . Therefore, understanding the
39 generation and variability of AABW is crucial for assessing oceanic heat budgets and
40 biogeochemical cycles under the background of global warming. However, in-situ
41 observations of AABW remain limited due to the extensive sea ice cover and extreme
42 climatic conditions over the Antarctic continental shelf and slope regions.
43 Furthermore, because AABW predominantly resides at depths exceeding 2000 meters,
44 its characterization using satellites or conventional buoys remains very challenging
45 (Silvano et al., 2023).

46 Observational data form the foundation for AABW research. While data from key
47 transects can accurately reflect AABW properties in specific regions, they are sparse,
48 temporally discontinuous, and subject to systematic biases (Purkey & Johnson, 2013).
49 In contrast, the World Ocean Atlas 2023 (WOA23) integrates nearly all historical
50 marine observations with rigorous quality control. Although it attenuates small-scale,
51 regional, and transient signals due to smoothing and averaging, WOA23 is well suited
52 for representing the large-scale, long-term averaged climatic state of AABW.
53 However, investigating the variability and trends of AABW is becoming increasingly



54 important, especially under global warming. In this context, ocean reanalysis products
55 and climate models also provide valuable datasets.

56 Several ocean reanalysis products are used to study AABW. Among them, ECCO2
57 can generally reproduce the upper bounds of AABW (defined by a density threshold
58 $\gamma^n \geq 28.27 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) (Azaneu et al., 2014) , but the post-2004 ECCO2 exhibits
59 unrealistic open-ocean polynyas and deep convection in the Weddell Sea region,
60 failing to capture the Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) (Azaneu et al., 2014) .
61 GECCO2 shows a substantial fresh bias throughout the water column, whereas
62 GLORYS2v4 and GloSea5-GO5 are generally saltier in certain layers. Taken together,
63 the multi-model ensemble mean provides the best agreement with observations
64 (Uotila et al., 2019). In addition to reanalysis products, global climate models such as
65 those from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) are
66 increasingly used to study AABW. However, only a few CMIP6 models can simulate
67 the shelf overflow processes, with most relying instead on open-ocean deep
68 convection, particularly in the Weddell and Ross Seas. As a result, the multi-model
69 mean AABW is generally warmer, fresher, and lighter than observations (Heuzé,
70 2021). These issues highlight the necessity of evaluating the ability of reanalysis and
71 climate model datasets to represent AABW.

72 The Weddell Sea, Ross Sea, Adélie Coast, and Prydz Bay are widely recognized as the
73 four primary source regions of AABW (Gordon et al., 1993; Ohshima et al., 2013;
74 Silvano et al., 2023; Williams et al., 2008) . However, significant differences exist in
75 the key physical processes governing AABW formation across these regions. These
76 include variations in basal ice-shelf melt rates, sea-ice production rates, the intensity
77 and direction of prevailing wind fields, and oceanic dynamical processes (e.g.,
78 overflows and mixing) (Han et al., 2024, 2025; Pardo et al., 2012; Schmidt et al.,
79 2023; Silvano et al., 2018, 2023) . Such differences lead to distinct regional
80 characteristics in the initial temperature and salinity signatures of the source water,
81 and consequently to marked differences in AABW properties in the deep ocean (Orsi
82 et al., 1999; Silvano et al., 2023). Many large-scale studies conventionally approach



83 AABW as a broadly uniform water mass. While this provides a useful framework for
84 global analysis, it may not fully capture the significant physical variations that exist
85 across different regions (Rintoul, 2018; Zhang et al., 2023), as AABW originating
86 from different source regions exhibit distinct thermohaline properties. These
87 differences might lead to variations in their respective contributions to global oceanic
88 thermodynamic processes, such as patterns of abyssal warming and changes in
89 overturning circulation intensity, as well as in their capacities for carbon uptake and
90 storage.

91 To address this, this study proposes a refined definition for further classifying AABW.
92 Taking WOA23 as a benchmark, we characterize the spatial distribution and
93 thermohaline properties of AABW subtypes. Furthermore, we evaluate the
94 capabilities and deficiencies of ocean reanalysis products and global climate models
95 in representing these AABW subtypes. This new classification framework is intended
96 to provide a foundation for subsequent, more detailed investigations into the
97 formation mechanisms, distinctive characteristics, and variability and impacts of
98 AABW originating from different source regions.

99 **2 Data and Methods**

100 **2.1 Data**

101 **2.1.1 Observational Data.**

102 This study utilizes full-depth ocean temperature and salinity climatological objective
103 analysis fields from WOA23 (Reagan et al., 2024; Locarnini et al., 2024), covering
104 the period 1991–2020. The data are provided on a $1/4^\circ$ latitude-longitude grid with
105 102 vertical levels. WOA23 is a global ocean climatology product developed and
106 distributed by the National Centers for Environmental Information of the National
107 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. The dataset integrates measurements from
108 multiple observational platforms and has undergone rigorous quality control
109 procedures. These include removal of duplicate records, range and gradient checks,



110 statistical significance testing based on 3–5 standard deviation thresholds, hydrostatic
111 stability verification, and manual flagging of suspicious values. In addition,
112 uncorrected real-time Argo salinity data have been excluded. To address the warm
113 bias associated with Expendable Bathythermograph (XBT) and Mechanical
114 Bathythermograph (MBT) measurements relative to bottle/CTD temperature data
115 (Gouretski & Koltermann, 2007), the bias correction scheme (Cheng et al., 2014;
116 Levitus et al., 2009) is applied. For salinity, the initial quality-controlled profiles are
117 interpolated to standard depth levels using the Reiniger–Ross method, followed by the
118 objective analysis via the Barnes scheme. To mitigate spurious vertical density
119 instabilities arising from inconsistencies between temperature and salinity profiles,
120 often due to the greater abundance of temperature observations, a joint stabilization
121 algorithm (Jackett & McDougall, 1995) is applied. This procedure ensures that the
122 final temperature and salinity fields yield a hydrostatically stable water column.

123 **2.1.2 Reanalysis Data.**

124 This study utilizes the ensemble mean of sea water potential temperature and salinity
125 from 1993 to 2022, derived from Global Ocean Ensemble Physics Reanalysis
126 (Product ID: GLOBAL-MULTIYEAR-PHY-ENS-001-031) provided by the
127 Copernicus Marine Service. This dataset integrates outputs from three independent
128 ocean reanalysis systems: GLORYS2V4 (Mercator Ocean; Lellouche et al., 2013),
129 ORAS5 (ECMWF; Zuo et al., 2019), and C-GLORSv5 (CMCC; Storto & Masina,
130 2016). It delivers monthly averaged variables, including sea water temperature,
131 salinity, current velocity, and sea surface height, from 1993 onward, at a horizontal
132 resolution of 0.25° and with 75 vertical layers. The production system is based on the
133 NEMO ocean model and the ORCA025 grid, forced by ERA-Interim and ERA5
134 atmospheric fields. Multi-source observational data are assimilated, encompassing sea
135 level anomalies (SLA), sea surface temperature (SST), sea ice concentration (SIC),
136 and in situ temperature/salinity (T/S) profiles. The ensemble is constructed via
137 post-processing of the three reanalysis members, which differ in their model versions,



138 surface forcing treatments, and data assimilation schemes. This diversity enhances the
 139 robustness and stability of the ensemble estimates.

140 2.1.3 Model outputs

141 This study utilizes data from 16 CMIP6 models, selected based on the availability of
 142 either the “historical” experiment or the “hist-1950” experiment and on the condition
 143 that monthly output for sea water salinity and potential temperature was accessible as
 144 of the data retrieval cutoff date. All selected models provide output on standard
 145 z-coordinates. Only the AWI-CM-1-1-HR dataset has a shorter period (1993–2010)
 146 compared to the others (1993–2014). Details of each model are provided in Table 1.

147 **Table 1.** Key characteristics of the 16 CMIP6 models utilized in this study, including
 148 their ocean component, nominal horizontal resolution, number of vertical levels,
 149 experiment ID and corresponding official references.

Model name	Ocean component	Horizontal resolution	Vertical levels	Experiment ID	Key reference
ACCESS-ESM1-5	MOM5	100 km	50	historical	(Ziehn et al., 2019)
AWI-CM-1-1-HR	FESOM 1.4	Unstructured (Ocean: ~25 km)	46	hist-1950	(Semmler et al., 2017)
AWI-CM-1-1-MR	FESOM 1.4	25 km	46	historical	(Semmler et al., 2018)
CanESM5	NEMO3.4.1	100 km	45	historical	(Swart et al., 2019)
CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR	POP2	10 km	62	hist-1950	(Hurrel et al., 2020a)
CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR	POP2	100 km	60	hist-1950	(Hurrel et al., 2020b)
CESM2	POP2	100 km	60	historical	(Danabasoglu, 2019)
CIESM	CIESM-OM	50 km	46	historical	(Huang, 2019)
CMCC-CM2-HR4	NEMO3.6	25 km	50	historical	(Scoccimarro et al., 2020)
CMCC-CM2-SR5	NEMO3.6	100 km	50	historical	(Lovato & Peano, 2020)
CNRM-CM6-1	NEMO3.6	100 km	75	historical	(Voldoire, 2018)
CNRM-CM6-1-HR	NEMO3.6	25 km	75	historical	(Voldoire, 2019)
FGOALS-f3-H	LICOM3.0	10 km	55	hist-1950	(Yu, 2020)
FIO-ESM-2-0	POP2-W	100 km	60	historical	(Song et al., 2019)
ICON-ESM-LR	ICON-O	Triangular Grid (Ocean: ~50 km)	40	historical	(Lorenz et al., 2021b)



Model name	Ocean component	Horizontal resolution	Vertical levels	Experiment ID	Key reference
IPSL-CM6A-LR	NEMO-OP A	100 km	75	historical	(Boucher et al., 2018)

150

151 **2.2 Methods**

152 The classical definition of AABW is a neutral density greater than $28.27 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (Orsi
153 et al., 1999). The salinities of Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW), Ross Sea Bottom
154 Water (RSBW), and Adélie Land Bottom Water (ALBW) are 34.650 ± 0.005 , 34.695
155 ± 0.005 , and 34.683 ± 0.005 , respectively (Pardo et al., 2012). Due to the close
156 spatial distribution of Prydz Bay Bottom Water (Solodoch et al., 2022), we combine
157 it with Weddell Sea Bottom Water and refer to the merged water mass as
158 Weddell–Prydz Bottom Water (WPBW). Given that one standard deviation (0.005)
159 corresponds to a relatively narrow salinity range, especially considering the study area
160 spans from the Antarctic coast to 50°S , where water mass transport and mixing can
161 cause slight salinity variations, we adopt two standard deviations to define the salinity
162 ranges of AABW originating from these three source regions. For instance, the
163 salinity range for WPBW is defined as 34.640–34.660. Potential temperature, a
164 commonly used physical parameter in oceanography, is not employed in this
165 definition due to its substantial temporal and spatial variability, which could easily
166 render the classification invalid. Moreover, AABW is characterized by low
167 temperatures, and under such conditions, sea water density is predominantly
168 controlled by salinity, with temperature playing a relatively minor role. Therefore, in
169 this study, the two key parameters used to distinguish different types of AABW are
170 neutral density and salinity (Table 2).

171 Based on the spatial distribution of regionally sourced AABW (Solodoch et al., 2022),
172 Here WPBW is confined to the region between 60°W and 70°E , RSBW to the regions
173 from 160°E to 180°E and from 180°W to 60°W , and ALBW to the region between
174 70°E and 160°E . The analysis is performed at 4000 m depth, a depth commonly used



175 to quantify abyssal ocean changes (Li et al., 2023; Purkey & Johnson, 2010), as well
176 as in the near-bottom layer. The 4000 m level is used to interpolate each dataset onto
177 the reanalysis vertical grid. For the near bottom analysis, the deepest valid data layer
178 of each dataset is considered representative of the near bottom, provided that the two
179 layers above also contain valid data to avoid singular values. Slight discrepancies may
180 exist among different model datasets.

181

182 **Table 2.** Classification and definition of AABW subtypes in this study.

	WPBW	RSBW	ALBW
Neutral density (kg m^{-3})		≥ 28.27	
Salinity (psu)	34.640 ~ 34.660	34.693 ~ 34.705	34.673 ~ 34.685

183

184 **3 Results**

185 **3.1 WOA23 observational data**

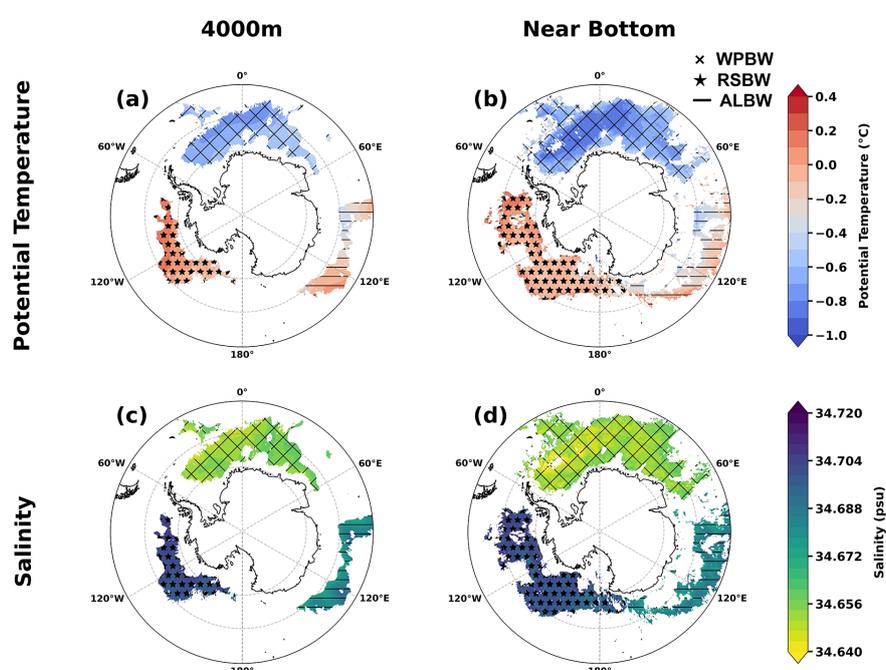
186 At the 4000 m layer, RSBW is characterized by relatively high potential temperature
187 and salinity, and is predominantly distributed in the eastern Ross Sea, Amundsen Sea,
188 and Bellingshausen Sea within the 70°S–60°S latitudinal band. In contrast, WPBW
189 exhibits lower potential temperature and salinity, and is mainly found in the Weddell
190 Sea, also within 70°S–60°S. ALBW exhibits intermediate thermohaline properties and
191 a fragmented spatial distribution, primarily occurring between 75°E–105°E and
192 105°E–150°E along the Antarctic continental margin, within the 60°S–50°S latitude
193 range (Figure 1a, c).

194 At the near bottom water layer, the overall distribution of AABW is consistent with
195 previous studies (Orsi et al., 1999; Purkey et al., 2018), with RSBW exhibiting
196 characteristically higher potential temperature and salinity, and WPBW showing
197 lower values. However, notable differences emerge among the AABW subtypes
198 compared to the 4000 m layer: the spatial extent of RSBW has increased markedly,



199 particularly in northward extension in the Bellingshausen Sea and westward extension
200 in the Ross Sea. WPBW has also expanded, with a pronounced northward extension
201 near 30°E. (Figure 1b, d).

202



203

204 **Figure 1.** Distribution of AABW subtypes from the 1991–2020 climatology based on
205 WOA2023. (a) and (b) show the potential temperature distribution of the defined
206 AABW subtypes at the 4000 m layer and the near bottom layer, respectively. (c) and
207 (d) present the salinity distribution of the defined AABW subtypes at the 4000 m layer
208 and the near bottom layer, respectively. Symbols for the different AABW subtypes are
209 shown in the legend.

210 3.2 Reanalysis data

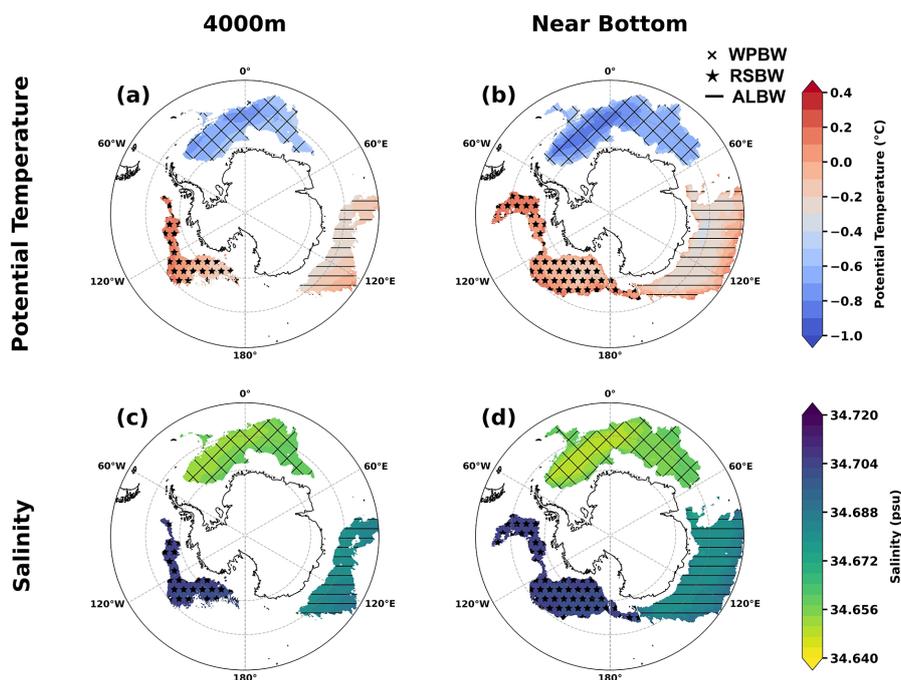
211 At the 4000 m layer, the ensemble reanalysis data indicate that, Consistent with
212 WOA23 observation, RSBW exhibits relatively high potential temperature and



213 salinity, while WPBW exhibits cooler and fresher signature. Moreover, the spatial
214 extent of RSBW in the reanalysis data is reduced, primarily in the western and central
215 Amundsen Sea, while ALBW is more extensive than in WOA23, forming a
216 continuous band between 75°E and 150°E (Figure 2a, c). In contrast, WPBW closely
217 matches the spatial distribution in WOA23.

218 At the near bottom layer, the reanalysis data further show that, consistent with the
219 observation-based AABW distribution, RSBW is also characterized by relatively
220 elevated potential temperature and salinity, whereas WPBW exhibits relatively lower
221 temperature and salinity. The spatial extent of RSBW is also markedly reduced,
222 primarily confined to the eastern Ross Sea and the central-western Amundsen Sea.
223 Similarly, the distribution of WPBW is more constrained relative to the WOA23 data,
224 particularly with reduced northward penetration. In contrast, ALBW covers a much
225 broader area than in the WOA23 data, extending from the Antarctic continental
226 margin nearly to 50°S within the longitudinal band of 75°E–150°E (Figure 2b, d).

227



228

229 **Figure 2.** Distribution of AABW subtypes from 1993 to 1998 based on the reanalysis
 230 dataset (GLOBAL_MULTIYEAR_PHY_ENS_001_031). (a) and (b) show the
 231 distribution of potential temperature for different types of AABW defined at the 4000
 232 m and near bottom layer, respectively. (c) and (d) show the distribution of salinity for
 233 different types of AABW defined at the 4000 m and near bottom layer, respectively.
 234 Symbols for the different AABW subtypes are shown in the legend.

235

236 3.3 Model outputs

237 As highlighted by Heuzé (2021), the performance of climate models in simulating
 238 AABW might be enhanced through two main approaches: increasing model resolution
 239 and improving the parameterization of complex physical processes. Ocean models
 240 with resolutions finer than 25 km can begin to describe the core structure of
 241 mesoscale eddies in open oceans (Chassignet & Xu, 2021; Hewitt et al., 2020).
 242 However, in some cases, coarser-resolution models may better represent certain
 243 physical process parameterizations. Based on these considerations, CMIP6 models



244 used in this study are classified by the resolution of their ocean components into low
245 resolution (100 km), moderate resolution (25–50 km), and high resolution (10 km).
246 The analysis is also conducted at the 4000 m and near-bottom layer, respectively.

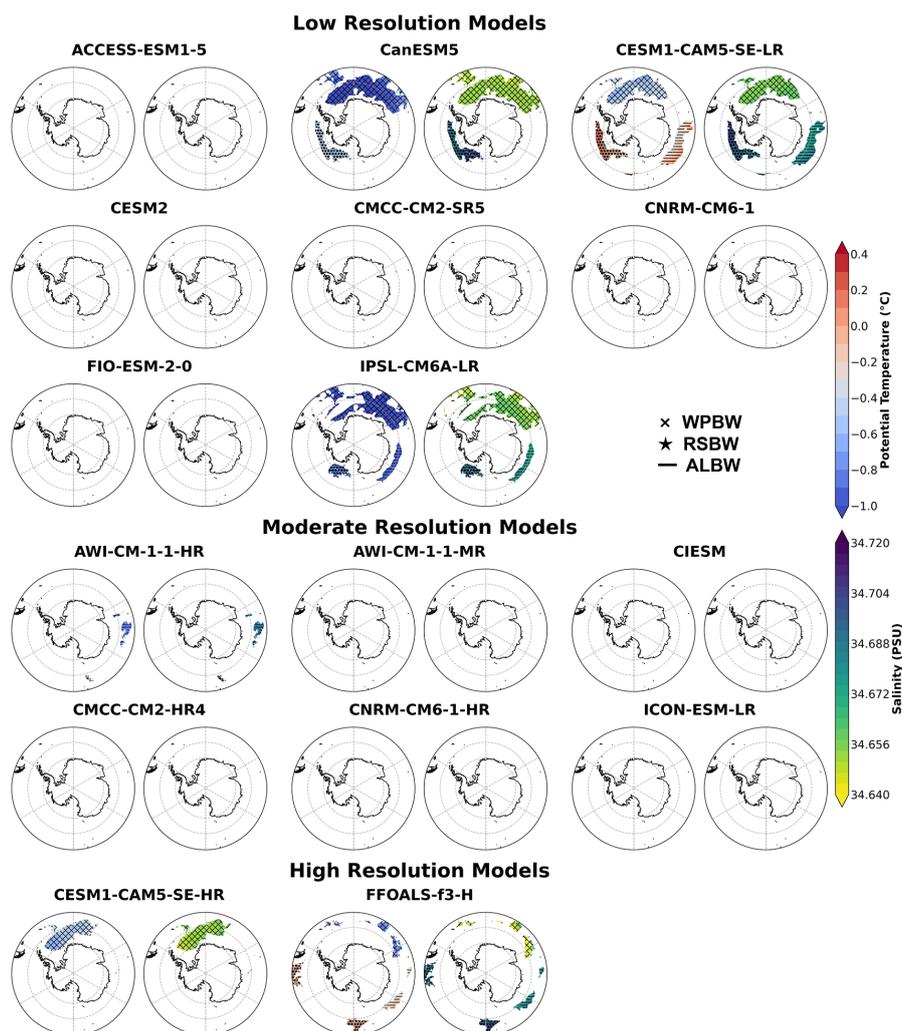
247

248 **3.3.1 At the 4000 m layer**

249 Among the eight selected low-resolution models, only CanESM5,
250 CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR, and IPSL-CM6A-LR partially capture the distribution of
251 AABW subtypes. Specifically, in the CanESM5 model, RSBW is mainly confined to
252 the eastern Ross Sea and a narrow band of the Amundsen and Bellingshausen Seas,
253 while WPBW is extended well into the western Indian sector of the Antarctic.
254 However, ALBW is not captured. The CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model captures the
255 AABW subtypes remarkably well, reproducing the spatial patterns observed in
256 WOA23 and reanalysis data. In contrast, the IPSL-CM6A-LR model shows a sparse
257 RSBW in the Ross Sea, WPBW located mainly in the western Indian sector, and a
258 narrow presence of ALBW along the Antarctic continental margin between 75°E and
259 150°E (Figure 3).

260 Within the six selected moderate resolution models, nearly all fail to reproduce the
261 AABW subtypes, though the AWI-CM-1-1-HR model shows a minimal
262 representation of the ALBW subtype (Figure 3).

263 Among the two selected high-resolution models, the CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR model
264 captures the Atlantic portion of WPBW relatively well, yet it fails to capture other
265 AABW subtypes. In contrast, the FGOALS-f3-H model represents RSBW, WPBW,
266 and ALBW in a scattered manner, showing substantial deviations from the spatial
267 patterns observed in WOA23 and reanalysis data (Figure 3).



268

269 **Figure 3.** The potential temperature and salinity of AABW subtypes at the 4000m
 270 layer based on CMIP6 models. Symbols for the different AABW subtypes are shown
 271 in the legend.

272 **3.3.2 At the near bottom layer**

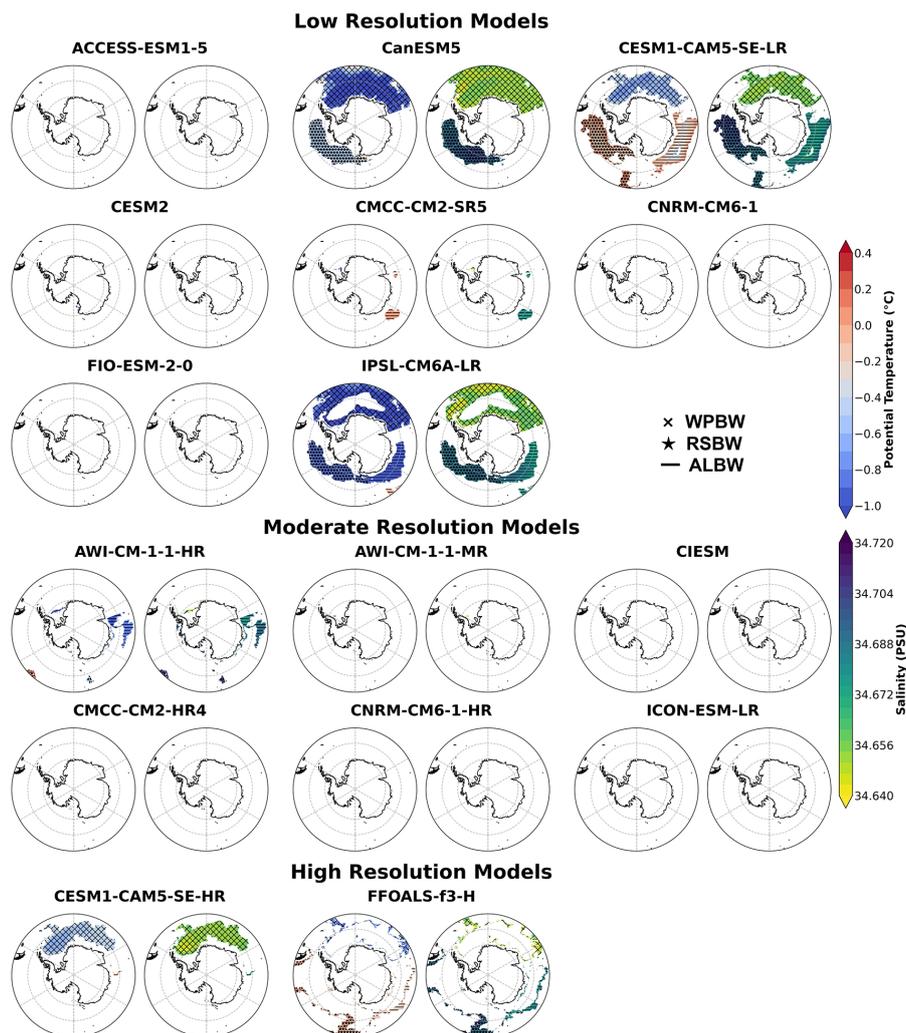
273 Among the low-resolution models, CanESM5, CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR, and
 274 IPSL-CM6A-LR exhibit a discernible bottom water distribution, while
 275 CMCC-CM2-SR5 shows only a minimal presence of ALBW. In the CanESM5 model,



276 RSBW is distributed from the central Ross Sea to the western Amundsen Sea, while
277 WPBW occupies an extensive area spanning nearly the entire Weddell Sea and the
278 western Indian sector of the Antarctic, as well as the region to its north. However, no
279 ALBW is found. The CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model demonstrates a reasonably
280 representation of the different AABW subtypes, reproducing the distribution patterns
281 of each type as reflected in the WOA23. In the IPSL-CM6A-LR model, WPBW
282 appears in the northern Weddell Sea and the western Indian sector but is absent from
283 the central core region, while ALBW is reasonably represented along the Antarctic
284 continental margin between 75°E and 160°E (Figure 4).

285 Of the moderate resolution models, almost none can capture the AABW subtypes,
286 though the AWI-CM-1-1-HR model shows a limited extent of ALBW, slightly more
287 extensive than that depicted at the 4000m depth (Figure 4).

288 Among the high-resolution models, the CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR model captures
289 WPBW relatively well but fails to reproduce the other AABW subtypes. The
290 distribution of AABW subtypes in the FGOALS-f3-H model is similar to its pattern at
291 4000m, characterized by a sparse and fragmented structure (Figure 4).



292

293 **Figure 4.** The potential temperature and salinity of AABW subtypes at the near
 294 bottom layer based on CMIP6 models. Symbols for the different AABW subtypes are
 295 shown in the legend.

296 3.3.3 Influence of overflow parameterization

297 The Ross Sea and Weddell Sea are two key regions for the formation of AABW via
 298 overflows of dense shelf water due to a combination of brine rejection and ocean and
 299 ice shelf interaction processes. However, due to limited model resolution, global



300 climate models are generally unable to explicitly resolve these processes (Heuzé,
301 2021; Mensah et al., 2021) . To address this issue, the Climate Variability and
302 Predictability (CLIVAR) Climate Process Team developed an overflow
303 parameterization for the Parallel Ocean Program version 2 (Brinkgreve &
304 Kumarswamy, 2008; Danabasoglu et al., 2010, 2012). This scheme is activated when
305 the density of shelf water exceeds a predefined threshold, channeling dense shelf
306 water through an artificial conduit directly into the deep ocean basin, thereby
307 bypassing the explicit representation of the descent along topographic slopes. Using
308 this process, water mass properties remain largely unchanged, in contrast to the large
309 changes in water mass properties caused by excessive mixing in kilometer-scale
310 climate models. The parameterization has been shown to perform effectively in model
311 simulations (Brinkgreve & Kumarswamy, 2008; Heuzé, 2021). In this study, the
312 models that adopt this scheme include CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR,
313 CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR, CESM2 and FIO-ESM-2-0 (note that the remaining models
314 do not clearly indicate the use of analogous parameterizations). Among the four
315 models incorporating the overflow parameterization scheme, CESM2 and
316 FIO-ESM-2-0 fail to represent all AABW subtypes, CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR only
317 simulates ALBW subtype, and CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR successfully captures the three
318 types of AABW, though the simulated spatial extent of ALBW is somewhat
319 overestimated. In contrast, most models without this parameterization scheme fail to
320 capture AABW subtypes. Exceptions are CanESM5 and IPSL-CM6A-LR, but their
321 performance is markedly inferior to that of CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR (Figures 3 and 4).

322 A comparison of AABW simulations between CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR and
323 CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR reveals that simply increasing the model resolution does not
324 systematically improve the representation of AABW subtypes (Figures 3 and 4). One
325 plausible explanation is that the physical parameterization schemes in the
326 low-resolution model have been extensively tuned to achieve an optimal simulation
327 state. If the high-resolution version continues to employ or only marginally adjusts the
328 parameterizations originally designed for low resolution configurations, this scheme



329 may become incompatible with the newly resolved dynamical processes, thereby
330 introducing substantial differences (Roberts et al., 2018).

331

332 **3.4 Model biases correction**

333 We know that the models exhibit systematic biases in simulating potential temperature
334 and salinity (Heuzé, 2021). To address this issue, a bias correction is applied to each
335 model. Specifically, for each subtype region (e.g., WPBW, 60°W–70°E), the
336 region-wide mean bias is calculated by subtracting the model’s multi-year mean from
337 the reanalysis mean, and this value is then subtracted from all grid points within that
338 region.

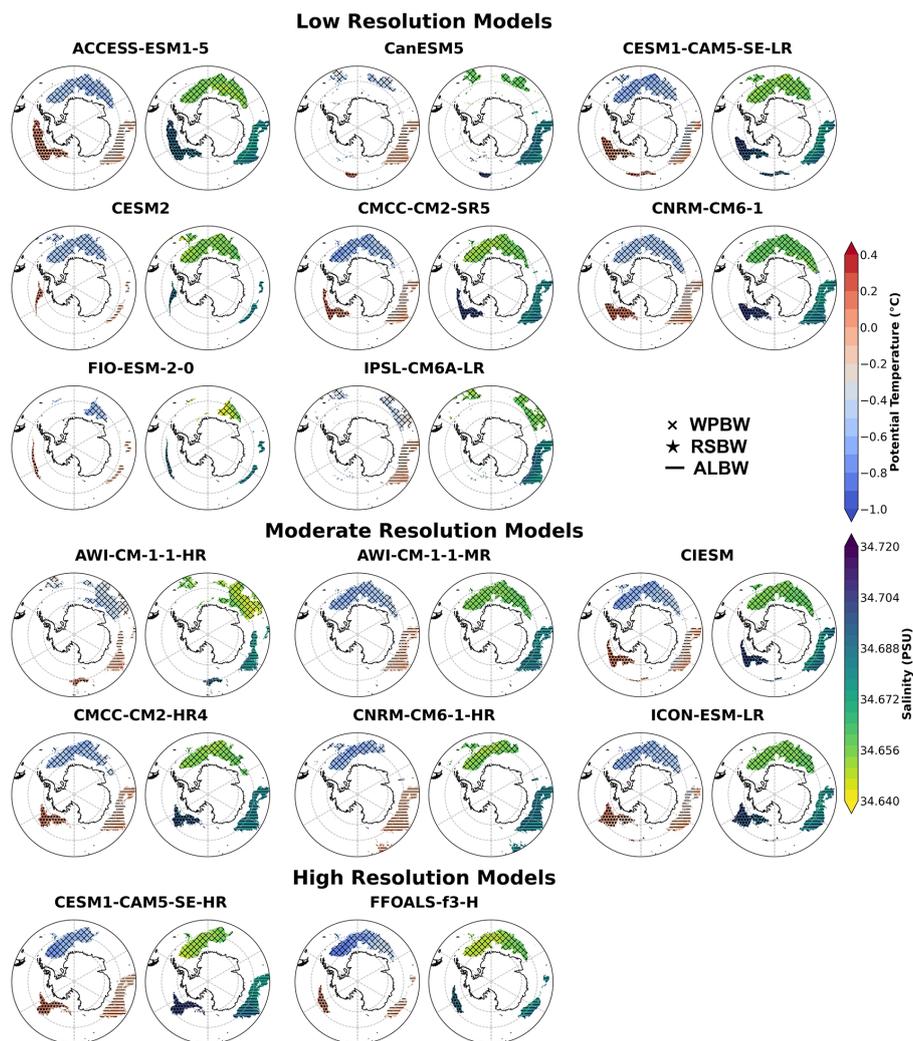
339 After applying the correction for potential temperature and salinity, except
340 CNRM-CM6-1-HR which exhibits no AABW signal in the near-bottom layer, all
341 models can capture AABW subtypes to some extent, although its spatial distribution
342 may differ from WOA23 and the reanalysis data (Figures 5–6).

343 At the 4000 m water layer, among the low-resolution models, ACCESS-ESM1-5,
344 CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR, CMCC-CM2-SR5, and CNRM-CM6-1 show relatively good
345 performance after the bias correction, generally consistent with the reanalysis and
346 WOA23 data. However, the spatial extent of RSBW in CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR,
347 CMCC-CM2-SR5, and CNRM-CM6-1 is somewhat reduced relative to WOA23. For
348 the moderate resolution models, CIESM, CMCC-CM2-HR4, and ICON-ESM-LR
349 perform relatively well with the bias correction. These models consistently simulate a
350 more limited spatial extent of RSBW. WPBW is captured with reasonably well
351 position and extent, while ALBW is confined within the longitudinal band of
352 75°E–135°E. Among the high-resolution models, CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR and
353 FGOALS-f3-H are consistent with the observations after the bias correction,
354 capturing all three subtypes of AABW. In CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR, RSBW and
355 WPBW exhibit reduced spatial extent. In FGOALS-f3-H, both RSBW and ALBW
356 have much smaller spatial coverage (Figure 5).



357 At the near bottom layer, among the low-resolution models, only the
358 ACCESS-ESM1-5 exhibits satisfactory performance after the bias correction. In
359 contrast, the CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model shows degraded performance after the
360 correction, with ALBW only distributed along the margins and absent in the central
361 part of the 75°E–150°E sector. Among the moderate resolution models, only
362 CMCC-CM2-HR4 performs well with the correction, though RSBW is present in a
363 smaller area, WPBW occupies a broader region in the Weddell Sea, and ALBW
364 extends across the longitudinal band of 75°E–135°E, covering a larger area. As for the
365 high-resolution models, both models fail to capture RSBW, though the bias-corrected
366 CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR model captures WPBW and ALBW more accurately (Figure
367 6).

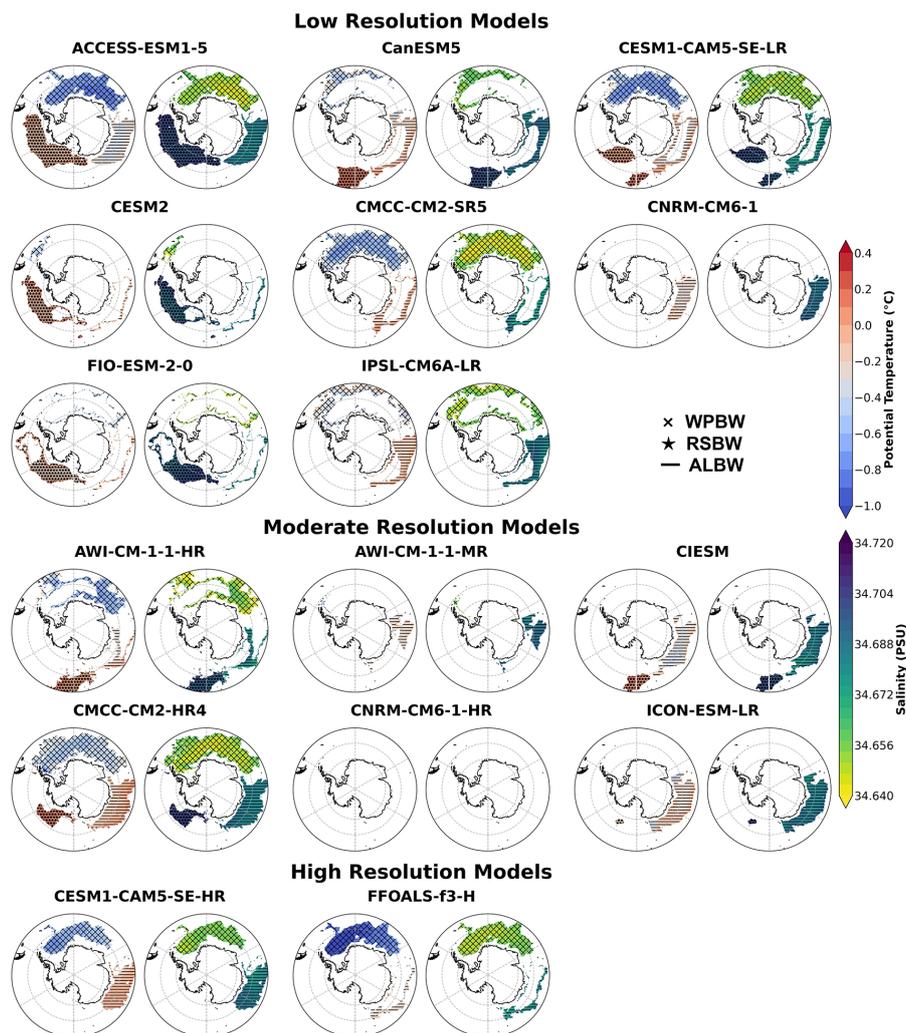
368 Overall, aside from CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR, which has good inherent simulation skill,
369 only ACCESS-ESM1-5 and CMCC-CM2-HR4 demonstrate reliable performance
370 after the correction at the 4000 m and near bottom layer.



371

372 **Figure 5.** The bias-corrected potential temperature and salinity of AABW subtypes at
373 the 4000m layer based on CMIP6 models. Symbols for the different AABW subtypes
374 are shown in the legend.

375



376

377 **Figure 6.** The bias-corrected potential temperature and salinity of AABW subtypes at
 378 the near bottom layer based on CMIP6 models. Symbols for the different AABW
 379 subtypes are shown in the legend.

380

381 **4 Discussion: changes in the area of AABW subtypes**

382 Previous assessments of AABW variability have primarily relied on sectional
 383 observations to estimate its spatial extent or volume within specific basins.

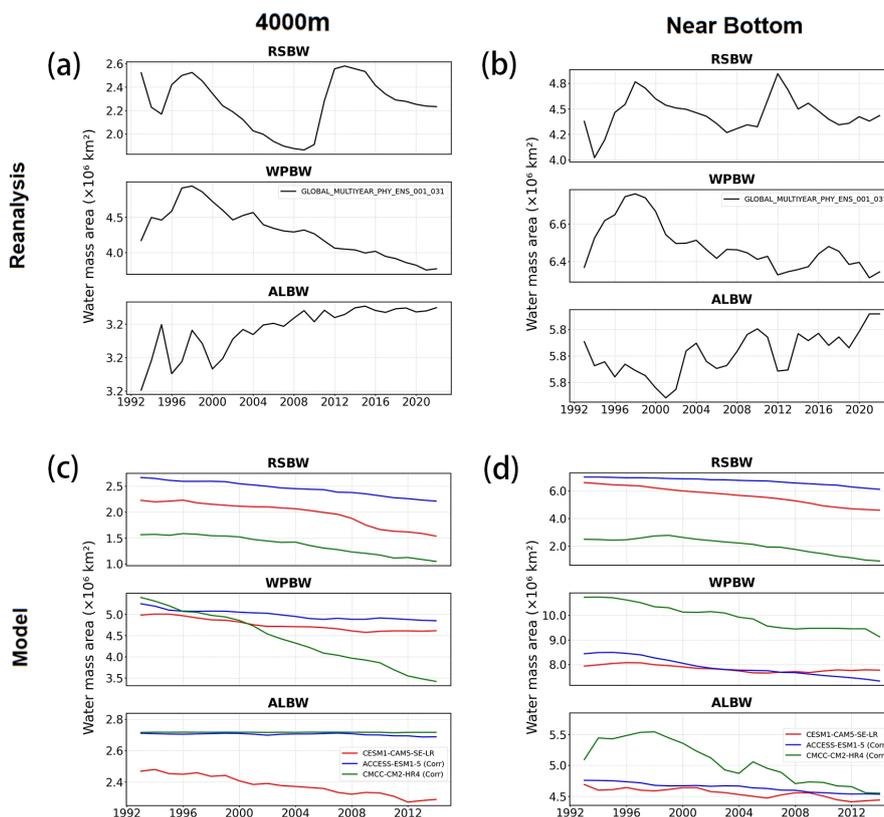


384 Multi-decadal hydrographic sections (e.g., A12, SR4, A23) show a persistent
385 contraction in the area occupied by WSBW between 1995 and 2012 (Zhou et al.,
386 2023) . High-resolution hydrographic observations reveal significant decadal-scale
387 variability in AABW thickness in the Ross Sea. Near Cape Adare and along 150°E,
388 AABW exhibited thinning from 1990 to 2011, followed by thickening until 2020,
389 potentially due to a renewal event during 2018–2019 (Silvano et al., 2020). Similarly,
390 repeated surveys along 170°E showed a ~ 70% reduction in RSBW ($\gamma^n \geq 28.30 \text{ kg}$
391 m^{-3}) area between 1992 and 2011, with a notable recovery by 2018 (Gunn et al.,
392 2023). Additionally, repeat WOCE hydrographic sections along 140°E off the Adélie
393 Coast document an overall reduction in the AABW area between 1993 and 2012 (van
394 Wijk & Rintoul, 2014). While these in-situ measurement–based data provide relatively
395 accurate assessments, their limited spatial coverage makes comprehensive monitoring
396 of AABW challenging. The reanalysis and CMIP6 models, despite their inherent
397 biases, can offer valuable supplementary information for these otherwise poorly
398 observed areas. Furthermore, since this study introduces a new classification for
399 different types of AABW, their respective area trends may also differ. Thus, built on
400 our analyses in section 2 and 3, here we provide a brief analysis and comparison of
401 the area changes for the newly defined AABW types, as represented by the reanalysis
402 data and the CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model, as well as the corrected
403 ACCESS-ESM1-5 model and CMCC-CM2-HR4 model (Figure 7).

404 Based on the reanalysis data, although the area of RSBW does not exhibit a
405 significant trend over the full period, it decreases significantly during 1998–2008 and
406 2013–2022 at both the 4000 m and bottom layers. In contrast, the area of WPBW
407 shows a significant declining trend from 1998 to 2022, with an almost linear decrease
408 particularly at the 4000 m layer. For ALBW, the 4000 m layer presents a fluctuating
409 increase from 1993 to 2004, followed by reduced variability after 2004. At the near
410 bottom layer, however, ALBW continues to fluctuate from 1993 to 2022, albeit with a
411 higher climatological mean after 2003(Figure 7a, b). In contrast, the
412 CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model, which performs well in simulating the three AABW



413 subtypes, exhibits a significant area contraction for all three AABW subtypes (RSBW,
 414 WPBW, and ALBW) throughout the entire period (Figures 7c, d). The
 415 ACCESS-ESM1-5 and CMCC-CM2-HR4, which have improved performance in
 416 simulating the AABW subtypes after the correction, also show declining trends for
 417 RSBW and WPBW. However, ALBW exhibits notable divergence. At the 4000 m
 418 layer, the area of ALBW remains quite stable in the bias-corrected ACCESS-ESM1-5
 419 and CMCC-CM2-HR4 models. At the near bottom layer, CMCC-CM2-HR4 displays
 420 a distinct evolution characterized by an initial expansion followed by a quick decline
 421 (Figures 7c, d). It is noteworthy that, although the overall trend in AABW area is
 422 declining, the variation in the ALBW area in this study differs depending on the data
 423 source. In any case, these results underscore the necessity of further subdivision of
 424 AABW.



425



426 **Figure 7.** Changes in the area of AABW subtypes. Panels (a) and (b) present the area
427 changes at the 4000 m and near bottom layer, respectively, derived from the reanalysis
428 product (GLOBAL-MULTIYEAR-PHY-ENS-001-031). Panels (c) and (d) present the
429 corresponding area changes at the 4000 m and near bottom layer based on output from
430 the CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model, as well as the bias-corrected ACCESS-ESM1-5
431 and CMCC-CM2-HR4 models.

432 **5 Conclusion**

433 Based on previous studies, this research proposes a new definition for reclassifying
434 AABW and evaluates the performance of observational, reanalysis, and CMIP6 model
435 outputs in capturing the reclassified AABW subtypes. The results indicate that the
436 WOA23 data captures the distribution of WPBW, RSBW, and ALBW, and can be
437 used as a benchmark. Compared to WOA23, the ensemble reanalysis data
438 (GLOBAL_MULTIYEAR_PHY_ENS_001_031) well captures all three AABW
439 subtypes, though it overestimates the spatial extent of ALBW. Most CMIP6 models
440 require bias correction to reasonably simulate AABW subtype distributions. Among
441 them, ACCESS-ESM1-5 and CMCC-CM2-HR4 show improved performance after
442 the correction. In contrast, the CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR model can capture the
443 distribution of all three AABW subtypes without the correction, which may be
444 attributed in part to its explicit representation of overflows together with tuned
445 simulation state. Furthermore, a comparison between CESM1-CAM5-SE-LR and its
446 high-resolution counterpart (CESM1-CAM5-SE-HR) suggests that simply increasing
447 model resolution does not necessarily lead to improved simulation of AABW
448 subtypes.

449

450 **Code and data availability**

451 The datasets utilized in this study are publicly available from the sources indicated
452 below: The World Ocean Atlas 2023 (WOA23) climatology data were obtained from



453 the National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI) at:
454 <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/world-ocean-atlas-2023/>. The global ocean
455 ensemble physical reanalysis products are available via Copernicus Marine Service at:
456 https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/GLOBAL_MULTIYEAR_PHY_ENS_001_031/services. The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) data can
457 be accessed through any Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) portal; the outputs
458 used in this paper were obtained from <https://aims2.llnl.gov/>. The code and processed
459 data used for the analysis and plotting in this study are available at Zenodo via
460 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18446787> (Chen et al., 2026).

462

463 **Author contributions**

464 JL conceptualized the study, supervised the research, and acquired the funding. SC
465 performed the formal analysis, created the visualizations, and wrote the original draft
466 of the manuscript. XH contributed to reviewing and editing the manuscript. All
467 authors discussed the results and approved the final version.

468

469 **Competing interests**

470 The author declares no competing interests.

471

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484

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489

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